DroMOOC

Computer Vision Basic Level

Image Features

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Image Features

Objectives of the Lecture

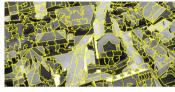
Know the basics of feature extraction and image representation for computer vision: why and how to reduce the information support, and how to use it for different purposes.

Outline of the Lecture

- Image features and Local geometry
- Scale-space derivatives
- Ex.1: Contours
- Ex.2: Corner points
- Ex.3: Blob points
- Feature description

Image Features: Why and What?







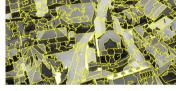
The purpose is to efficiently represent image parts, so that they can be matched between their occurrences within video sequences or stereo pairs. It consists in:

- Reducing the information support to a compact and significant subset.
- Representing this subset by a robust, discriminant and small descriptor.

Original aerial images from this lecture © senseFly

Feature detection







Feature detection is the process that extracts the relevant pixels in images. In the above examples: keypoints, regions, contour points. A good detector should be:

- Representative (Provide many points...)
- Repeatable (...stable under deformation)
- Fast!

Feature Description

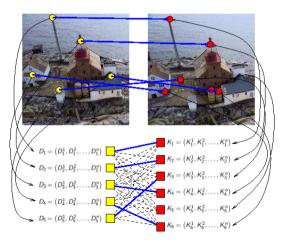
Feature description is the process that attaches to each selected pixel a representation vector called *descriptor* so that matching features can be done by comparing descriptors (e.g. using a distance measure). A good descriptor should be:

- Compact (Low dimension) for efficiency purpose.
- Distinctive for discrimination purpose.
- Invariant to image change (e.g. pose and illumination)

Examples: neighbourhood patches, Contrast, Orientation, Curvature, Histograms of Orientation...

Feature points matching

Many computer vision applications are based on matching a collection of feature points, which is usually performed using nearest neighbour search and consistency criteria.



Typical use cases:

- Sparse optical flow
- Object tracking
- Image registration
- Visual servoing
- Visual odometry
- Object recognition

Image Features and Local Geometry

Image features are related to spatially salient structures, characterised by their local geometry, which is well described using spatial derivatives.

For example, at order 1, the gradient vector $\nabla I = \left(\frac{\partial I}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial I}{\partial y}\right)^T$ provides two essential features:

• Orientation: $\arg \nabla I = \arctan \left(\frac{\partial I/\partial y}{\partial I/\partial x} \right)$ • Contrast: $||\nabla I|| = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\partial I}{\partial x} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial I}{\partial y} \right)^2}$

• Contrast:
$$||\nabla I|| = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\partial I}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial I}{\partial y}\right)^2}$$

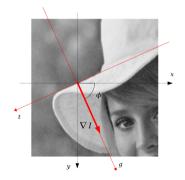
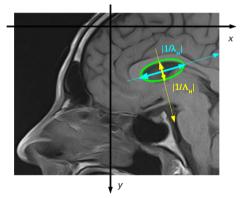


Image Features and Local Geometry

At order 2, the Hessian matrix $H_I = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 I}{\partial x^2} & \frac{\partial^2 I}{\partial x \partial y} \\ \frac{\partial^2 I}{\partial x \partial y} & \frac{\partial^2 I}{\partial y^2} \end{pmatrix}$ provides through its eigen vectors (resp.values) the main directions (resp. intensities) of curvature.



Scale-space derivatives

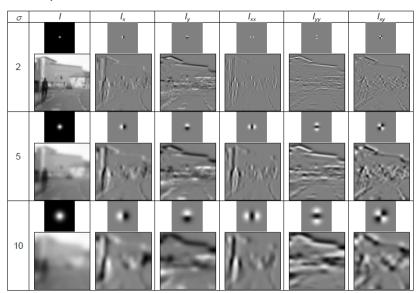
- First lecture: finite difference convolution based derivatives.
- Derivability ⇔ Regularity.
- Scale space principle: on discrete images, the derivative only makes sense up to a scale parameter.
- The level of regularity is explicitly enforced by Gaussian smoothing.

Gaussian derivatives

$$\left(\frac{\partial^{i+j}I}{\partial^i x \partial^j y}\right)_{\sigma} \equiv I \star \frac{\partial^{i+j}G_{\sigma}}{\partial^i x \partial^j y}$$

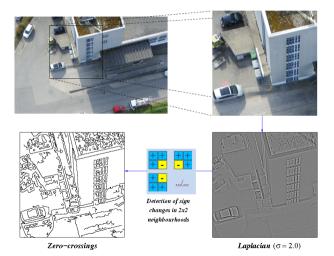
with
$$G_{\sigma} = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} e^{-\frac{x^2+y^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$
.

Scale-space derivatives

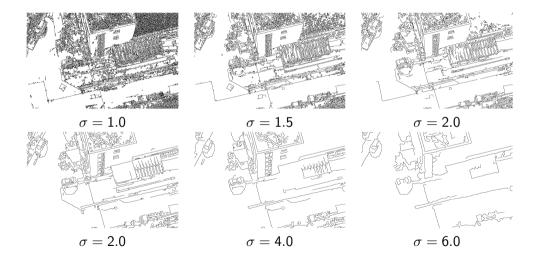


Example 1: Contour detection

- Contour: location of significant changes in the image.
- Derivative formulation: Zero-crossings of the Laplacian $\Delta I = \frac{\partial^2 I}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 I}{\partial y^2}$.



Multi-scale Contours



Example 2: Corner point detection

- A corner point is a locus where the value varies significantly in different directions.
- It can be evaluated at any location (x, y), using the local dissimilarity measure $\chi(x, y)$:

$$\chi(x,y) = \sum_{(i,j)\in W} (I(i,j) - I(i+\Delta x, j+\Delta y))^2$$

- where $(\Delta x, \Delta y)$ is a 2d displacement vector.
- where W is a small neighbourhood window centred on pixel (x, y).



Example 2: Corner point detection

Using a first order approximation of $I(i + \Delta x, j + \Delta y)$, we get:

$$\chi(x,y) \simeq (\Delta x \quad \Delta y) \underbrace{\left(\sum_{(i,j) \in W} \left(\frac{\partial I}{\partial x}(i,j) \right)^2 \sum_{(i,j) \in W} \left(\frac{\partial I}{\partial x}(i,j) \cdot \frac{\partial I}{\partial y}(i,j) \right)}_{(i,j) \in W} \left(\frac{\partial I}{\partial x}(i,j) \cdot \frac{\partial I}{\partial y}(i,j) \right) \sum_{(i,j) \in W} \left(\frac{\partial I}{\partial y}(i,j) \right)^2 \right)}_{\Xi(x,y)} \begin{pmatrix} \Delta x \\ \Delta y \end{pmatrix}$$

- $\Xi(x, y)$ is called the structure matrix at pixel (x, y).
- The corner points are those for which $\Xi(x, y)$ has two large eigen values.

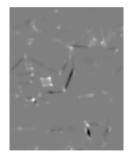
Example 2: Harris corner point detector

The Harris detector does not explicitly calculate the eigen values of Ξ , but uses the interest function Θ instead:

$$\Theta(x, y) = \det \Xi(x, y) - \alpha \operatorname{trace}\Xi(x, y)$$



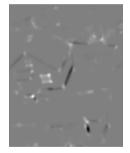
Original I



Interest Function Θ ($\sigma = 3.0$)

Example 2: Harris corner point detector

- The local maxima of function Θ are the corner points.
- The intrinsic scale of the corner points is the one used to estimate the partial derivatives.

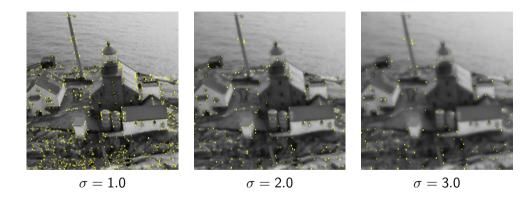


Interest Function Θ ($\sigma = 3.0$)

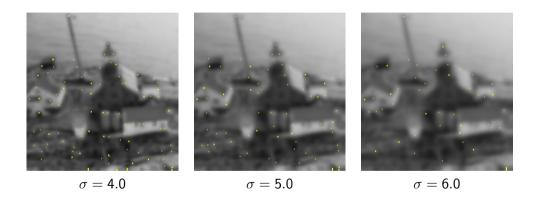


Harris corner points

Multi-scale Harris Corner Point Detector 1/2



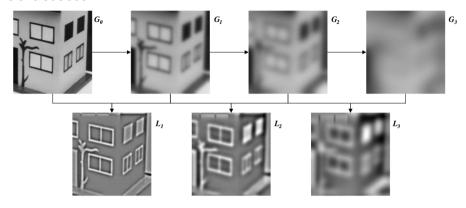
Multi-scale Harris Corner Point Detector 2/2



Example 3: Blob detectors

- Blobs are elliptical bright or dark structures in the image.
- They are usually better suited than corner points to large scales.
- Unlike corner points, they are characterised at second order of derivation.
- They can be detected as local maxima of the *Hessian determinant* (e.g. SURF points).
- They can also be detected as the local maxima of the *multiscale Difference-of-Gaussians* (e.g. SIFT points)

SIFT Blob detector





The SIFT points are the local extrema in the 3d scale-space (x, y, k) of the normalised $L_k(x, y)$ Difference of Gaussians function.

SIFT Blob detector

- Each SIFT keypoint is localised in both space (x, y) and scale k.
- It has its specific orientation: $\theta(x,y,k) = \arctan \frac{\frac{\partial}{\partial y} G_k(x,y)}{\frac{\partial}{\partial x} G_k(x,y)}$.

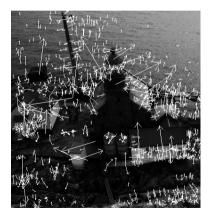


Image 1: 984 keypoints



Image 2: 792 keypoints

SURF Blob detector

SURF is a fast alternative to blob detection. It calculates the multi-scale determinant of the Hessian, by approximating the second derivatives by fast convolutions using rectangular (Haar-like) kernels:

•
$$\frac{\partial^2 I}{\partial y^2} \simeq I \star H_{yy}$$

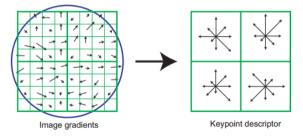
• $\frac{\partial^2 I}{\partial x \partial y} \simeq I \star H_{xy}$

•
$$\frac{\partial^2 I}{\partial x \partial y} \simeq I \star H_{xy}$$

etc.

SIFT Feature Descriptor

- The SIFT feature descriptor is a collection of Gradient Orientation Histograms collected over square regions around each SIFT point.
- For rotation invariance purpose, the specific orientation of the SIFT point is used as origin of all histograms.



SIFT Feature Matching



- The matching between Image 1 (984 keypoints) and Image 2 (792 keypoints) provides 151 matches considered as "correct".
- A match is considered correct here if the ratio between the distance to the closest descriptor and the distance to the second closest descriptor is less than a certain threshold (e.g. 0.7).

Image Features - CONCLUSION

What have we learned so far

- Interest of image features
- Scale-space feature detection
- Feature description

Upcoming Lecture

- Feature matching
- Video: Optical Flow
- Spatial regularisation